

Research Paper

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# Morphological and genetic characterization of *Pterygodermatites* (*Paucipectines*) *zygodontomis* (Nematoda: Rictulariidae) from *Necromys lasiurus* (Rodentia: Sigmodontinae) from Uberlândia, Brazil

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## Abstract

*Pterygodermatites* (*Paucipectines*) *zygodontomis*, a nematode parasite of the small intestine of the rodent *Necromys lasiurus*, from Uberlândia, Minas Gerais state, Brazil, was analysed by light and scanning electron microscopy. Additionally, phylogenies were inferred from the mitochondrially encoded cytochrome *c* oxidase I gene (MT-CO1). Details of the helminth surface, such as the oral aperture, cephalic papillae, papillae in the posterior region of the body and longitudinal cuticular elements represented by spine-like projections and fans are presented, adding new taxonomic details. Molecular phylogenetic analysis, based on the MT-CO1, demonstrated that *P. (P.) zygodontomis* and *Pterygodermatites* (*Paucipectines*) *jaegerskioldi* form a unique evolutionary unit in accordance with the subgenus *Paucipectines* and corroborated their occurrence in cricetid and didelphid hosts.

## Introduction

Parasitism is one of the most common interactions among species within ecosystems (Gardner & Campbell, 1992; Thomas *et al.*, 2005), and it affects individual health, population growth, community structure and even ecosystem functioning (Grenfell, 1992; Morand *et al.*, 1996; Morand & Arias-Gonzalez, 1997; Poulin, 1998). Small mammal hosts, including rodents, marsupials and bats, are infected by a variety of parasitic species, and may act as reservoirs of zoonosis, such as leishmaniasis, Chagas disease and schistosomiasis (Gentile *et al.*, 2010; Orozco *et al.*, 2014). Despite the importance of studies concerning mammal–parasite interactions for addressing the occurrence of diseases in natural and human-disturbed environments (Simões *et al.*, 2010; Moreira *et al.*, 2013; Cardoso *et al.*, 2016), little is known about the helminth fauna, their geographic distribution, host specificity and prevalence in Neotropical small mammals. Moreover, studies containing detailed taxonomical and structural descriptions of these helminths are still scarce.

*Necromys lasiurus* (Lund, 1840) is a small (35 g), terrestrial rodent species which is known to be a reservoir of leishmaniasis (Brandão-Filho *et al.*, 2003) and hantavirus pulmonary syndrome (Limongi *et al.*, 2013). Its distribution extends through central Brazil to south of the Amazon River, including north-eastern Argentina, extreme south-eastern Peru, Paraguay and Bolivia (Redford & Eisenberg, 1999), thus inhabiting the grasslands of Cerrado, Caatinga, as well as open areas in the Atlantic Forest biome in Brazil (Bonvicino *et al.*, 2008). It is considered to be a generalist species, being favoured by anthropogenic disturbances due to its tolerance of habitat modification and broad diet spectrum, including leaves, seeds, fruits and insects (Vieira & Baumgarten, 1995; Redford & Eisenberg, 1999). Moreover, due to its high density and short life cycle (Francisco *et al.*, 1995), *N. lasiurus* may contribute to persistence of parasite populations and their transmission among hosts (Oliveira *et al.*, 2014; Sabino-Santos *et al.*, 2016).

Nematodes of the family Rictulariidae Froelich, 1802, infect mammals worldwide, including bats, marsupials, rodents, carnivores and primates. The morphological characteristics of the genus *Pterygodermatites* are based on the oral opening position and the total number cuticular projections, the number of prevulvar cuticular projections in females, and the positions of the

papillae at the posterior end and the size of the spicules in males (Quentin, 1967). *Pterygodermatites (Paucipectines) zygodontomis* was first described by Quentin (1967) from the small intestine of the rodent *N. lasiurus* collected in Exú, in the state of Pernambuco, Brazil. However, some morphological aspects were not described in detail, and this species has not been reported by scanning electron microscopy and molecular analysis.

Within the phylum Nematoda, phylogenetic studies based on molecular data have been carried out for the order Spirurida by Blaxter *et al.* (1998), Wijová *et al.* (2005) and Nadler *et al.* (2007). Nevertheless, so far, no molecular phylogeny has included the family Rictulariidae. In fact, just one small sequence from a member of this family is available in public databases.

In the present study, *P. (P.) zygodontomis* was analysed by light and scanning electron microscopy, adding new details to taxonomic characteristics. Additionally, phylogenies including representatives of this nematode genus were inferred, based on partial sequences of the mitochondrially encoded cytochrome *c* oxidase I gene, to determine relationships of the superfamily Rictularioidea within the order Spirurida.

## Materials and methods

### Study sites and habitat description

Rodents were captured in Uberlândia (18°55'07"S, 48°17'19"W), in the state of Minas Gerais, Brazil, which is located in the Cerrado biome. Cerrado is the largest South American savannah, characterized by a tropical climate with a dry winter from April to September and a wet season from October to March. Collection was carried out in rural areas, including grassland and cornfields, and in the borders of Cerrado vegetation preserved areas, called Cerrado *sensu stricto*.

### Collection and examination of rodents

In collaboration with the staff of the municipal government, 102 specimens of *N. lasiurus* were collected and analysed for helminth parasites during an investigation of hantavirus cases. Animals were captured with Tomahawk® (16 × 5 × 5 inches) and Sherman® traps (3 × 3.75 × 12 inches) baited with a mixture of peanut butter, banana, oats and bacon. Trapping occurred between December 2011 and November 2012. Biosafety techniques were used during all procedures involving biological samples (Lemos & D'Andrea, 2014).

### Helminth recovery and morphological analysis

The abdominal and thoracic cavities of the rodents were examined for the presence of helminths. Organs were placed separately in Petri dishes, washed twice in physiological saline solution, and dissected under a stereomicroscope. Worms were washed twice in saline solution to remove tissue debris and fixed in AFA (2% glacial acetic acid, 3% formaldehyde, 95% ethanol), or alternatively preserved in 70% ethanol for DNA isolation. For study of morphological characters, nine male and ten female specimens were cleared in 80% phenol (70% ethanol and phenolic acid), mounted on temporary slides and examined using a Zeiss Scope Z1 light microscope (Zeiss, Göttingen, Germany). The structures were measured via digital images captured by a Zeiss Axio Cam HRC using the accessory software Axio Vision Rel. 4.7.

For scanning electron microscopy (SEM), six specimens (three males and three females) were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 4% freshly prepared formaldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2, washed in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer, post fixed for 2 h in 1% osmium tetroxide and 0.8% potassium ferricyanide, pH 7.2, dehydrated in a graded ethanol series (20–100° GL) for 20 min each step and dried to critical point (Mafera & Lanfredi 1998). Specimens were examined using a JEOL JSM-6390 microscope (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) at the Rudolf Barth Electron Microscopy Platform of the Oswaldo Cruz Institute.

Voucher specimens of the helminths were deposited in the Coleção Helmintológica do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz (*P. zygodontomis* numbers: CHIOC 38398, female only, from Exú, Pernambuco state and CHIOC 38399, male and female, from Uberlândia, Minas Gerais state; *Pterygodermatites jaegerskioldi* numbers: CHIOC 38400 and 38501 from Corumbá, Mato Grosso do Sul state).

### Molecular and phylogenetic analysis

Genomic DNA samples were isolated from mid-section fragments of *P. zygodontomis*, *P. jaegerskioldi*, *Physocephalus lassancei* and *Protospirura numidica* adult worms (table 1). DNA isolation used the QIAGEN QIAamp® DNA Mini Kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). Each reaction was performed using only one specimen. Before DNA extraction, each specimen was clarified in alcohol/glycerol, identified morphologically and subsequently washed in 70% ethanol and distilled water.

DNA amplification by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) methodology was conducted using the primer cocktail: NemF1\_t1 5'-TGT AAA ACG ACG GCC AGT CRA CWG TWA ATC AYA ARA ATA TTG G-3', NemF2\_t1 5'-TGT AAA ACG ACG GCC AGT ARA GAT CTA ATC ATA AAG ATA TYG G-3', NemF3\_t1 5'-TGT AAA ACG ACG GCC AGT ARA GTT CTA ATC ATA ARG ATA TTG G-3', NemR1\_t1 5'-CAG GAA ACA GCT ATG ACT AAA CTT CWG GRT GAC CAA AAA ATC A-3', NemR2\_t1 5'-CAG GAA ACA GCT ATG ACT AWA CYT CWG GRT GMC CAA AAA AYC A-3' and NemR3\_t1 5'-CAG GAA ACA GCT ATG ACT AAA CCT CWG GAT GAC CAA AAA ATC A-3', as described by Prosser *et al.* (2013), for the barcode region of the mitochondrial cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I gene (MT-CO1). Each PCR contained 2.5 µl of 10× PCR buffer, 2 µl of 50 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 µl of each primer cocktail (10 µM of a three-forward-primers mix, and 10 µM of a three-reverse-primers mix), 0.5 µl of 10 mM deoxynucleotide triphosphate solution (dNTPs), 0.2 µl of Invitrogen™ Platinum™ Taq DNA polymerase (500 U/µl) (Invitrogen, São Paulo, Brazil), 2.0 µl of genomic DNA and ultrapure water, in a total reaction volume of 25 µl. Thermal cycling conditions were 94°C for 1 min; five cycles at 94°C for 40 s, 45°C for 40 s, 72°C for 1 min; followed by 35 cycles at 94°C for 40 s, 51°C for 40 s, 72°C for 1 min; and a final extension at 72°C for 5 min (Prosser *et al.*, 2013). The resulting amplicons were visualized on 2% agarose gels using GelRed™ nucleic acid gel stains (Biotium, Hayward, California, USA).

Successfully amplified amplicons were purified using the GE Healthcare illustra™ GFX™ PCR DNA and Gel Band Purification Kit following the manufacturer's protocol (GE Healthcare Little Chalfont, Bucks, UK) and then cycle sequenced using the Applied Biosystems™ BigDye™ Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, California, USA), individually for each primer mentioned above for better accuracy. Sequencing was performed using the Applied Biosystems™ ABI

**Table 1.** Species, geographic locality, host and GenBank accession number of species used for this study.

Species	Geographic locality	Host	Accession number	Reference
<b>Acuarioidea</b>				
<i>Acuaria europaea</i>	Bulgaria	<i>Dendrocopos syriacus</i>	KX353874	Mutafchiev et al., 2017
<i>Proyseria petterae</i>	Madagascar	<i>Corythornis vintsioides</i>	KJ995862	Mutafchiev et al., 2014
<b>Camallanoidea</b>				
<i>Procamallanus spiculogubernaculus</i>	India	<i>Heteropneustes fossilis</i>	KU292358	Chaudhary et al., 2017
<b>Dracunculoidea</b>				
<i>Dracunculus medinensis</i>	n/a	n/a	JN555591	n/a
<i>Philometroides sanguineus</i>	China	<i>Carassius carassius</i>	KM111526	Su et al., 2016
<b>Filarioidea</b>				
<i>Acanthocheilonema viteae</i>	n/a	<i>Meriones unguiculatus</i>	HQ186249	McNulty et al., 2012
<i>Brugia malayi</i>	n/a	n/a	AF538716	Ghedini et al., 2007
<i>Brugia pahangi</i>	n/a	n/a	AP017680	n/a
<i>Brugia timori</i>	n/a	n/a	AP017686	n/a
<i>Chandlerella quisquali</i>	United States	<i>Quiscalus quiscula</i>	HM773029	McNulty et al., 2012
<i>Litomosoides sigmodontis</i>	n/a	n/a	AP017689	n/a
<i>Loa loa</i>	Cameroon	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	HQ186250	McNulty et al., 2012
<i>Onchocerca flexuosa</i>	n/a	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	HQ214004	McNulty et al., 2012
<i>Onchocerca ochengi</i>	n/a	n/a	KX181290	n/a
<i>Onchocerca volvulus</i>	Brazil	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	KT599912	Crainey et al., 2016
<i>Setaria digitata</i>	China	<i>Bubalus bubalis</i>	KY284626	Liu et al., 2017
<i>Wuchereria bancrofti</i>	India	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	JN367461	Ramesh et al., 2012
<b>Gnathostomatoidea</b>				
<i>Gnathostoma doloresi</i>	Japan	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	KX231806	Sun et al., 2016
<i>Gnathostoma spinigerum</i>	China	<i>Monopterus albus</i>	KP410547	Liu et al., 2015b
<i>Gnathostoma nipponicum</i>	Japan	<i>Mustela nivalis</i>	KX826911	Sun et al., 2017
<b>Habronematoidea</b>				
<i>Habronema muscae</i>	Italy	<i>Equus caballus</i>	FJ471583	Iorio et al., 2009
<i>Habronema microstoma</i>	Italy	<i>Equus caballus</i>	FJ471582	Iorio et al., 2009
<b>Physalopteroidea</b>				
Physalopteridae gen sp. 1	Mexico	<i>Sceloporus</i> sp.	KC130693	Prosser et al., 2013
Physalopteridae gen sp. 2	Mexico	<i>Imantodes</i> sp.	KC130708	Prosser et al., 2013
<i>Physaloptera</i> sp. 1	Mexico	<i>Trimorphodon biscutatus</i>	KC130707	Prosser et al., 2013
<i>Physaloptera</i> sp. 2	Mexico	<i>Trimorphodon biscutatus</i>	KC130706	Prosser et al., 2013
<i>Turgida</i> sp.	Mexico	<i>Didelphis virginiana</i>	KC130680	Prosser et al., 2013
<b>Rictularioidea</b>				
<i>Pterygodermatites jaegerskioldi</i> 1	Brazil	<i>Gracilinanus agilis</i>	KT894802	Present study
<i>Pterygodermatites jaegerskioldi</i> 2	Brazil	<i>Gracilinanus agilis</i>	MF155935	Present study
<i>Pterygodermatites zygodontomis</i> 1	Brazil	<i>Necomys lasiurus</i>	MF187069	Present study
<i>Pterygodermatites zygodontomis</i> 2	Brazil	<i>Rhipidomys mastacalis</i>	MF155934	Present study
<i>Pterygodermatites zygodontomis</i> 3	Brazil	<i>Necomys lasiurus</i>	MF155933	Present study
<b>Spiruroidea</b>				
<i>Cylicospirura felineus</i>	United States	<i>Lynx rufus</i>	GQ342967	Ferguson et al., 2011
<i>Cylicospirura petrowi</i>	n/a	n/a	KF719952	n/a

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Species	Geographic locality	Host	Accession number	Reference
<i>Cylicospirura subaequalis</i>	United States	<i>Puma concolor</i>	GQ342968	Ferguson <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Gongylonema aegypti</i>	Egypt	<i>Acomys dimidiatus</i>	LC026046	Setsuda <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Gongylonema pulchrum</i>	China	<i>Capra aegagrus hircus</i>	KM264298	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2015a
<i>Physocephalus lassancei</i>	Brazil	<i>Thrichomys fosteri</i>	KT894799	Present study
<i>Protospirura muricola</i>	Central African Republic	<i>Gorilla gorilla</i>	KP760207	Lefoulon <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Protospirura numidica 1</i>	Brazil	<i>Oxymycterus dasythricthus</i>	KT894800	Present study
<i>Protospirura numidica 2</i>	Brazil	<i>Oxymycterus delator</i>	KT894801	Present study
<i>Spirocerca lupi</i>	China	<i>Canis lupus familiaris</i>	KC305876	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2013b
Thelazioidea				
<i>Thelazia lacrymalis</i>	Italy	<i>Equus caballus</i>	AJ271619	Casiraghi <i>et al.</i> , 2001
<i>Thelazia callipaeda</i>	China	<i>Canis lupus familiaris</i>	JX069968	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2013a
<i>Thelazia callipaeda</i>	n/a	n/a	AP017700	n/a
Plectoidea				
<i>Plectus aquatilis</i>	Belgium	Free-living aquatic	KX017524	Kim <i>et al.</i> , 2017

n/a, Not available.

3730 DNA Analyzer. Both procedures and cycle-sequenced product precipitation were conducted at the DNA sequencing platform of the Oswaldo Cruz Institute, PDTIS/FIOCRUZ. Fragments were assembled into contigs and edited for ambiguities using the Geneious 9.1.8 software (<http://www.geneious.com>; Kearse *et al.*, 2012), resulting in a consensus sequence for each individual worm.

The MT-CO1 dataset included sequences from representatives of the superfamilies Rictularioidea (our two *Pterygodermatites* species), Acuarioidea, Camallanoidea, Dracunculoidea, Filarioidea, Gnathostomatoidea, Habronematoidea, Physalopteroidea, Spiruroidea and Thelazioidea (table 1). Plectoidea was included as the outgroup. Substitution saturation in the dataset was assessed using the test by Xia *et al.* (2003) and Xia & Lemey (2009) with the software DAMBE version 6.4.79 (Xia, 2017).

Phylogenetic reconstructions were carried out using the software Treefinder version of March 2011 (Jobb, 2011) for maximum likelihood (ML) as optimality criteria and MrBayes version 3.2.6 (Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) for Bayesian inference (BI). Both ML and BI analyses were performed using distinct models per codon position, to account for different evolutionary processes at each of the three codon positions.

In the ML analyses, evolutionary models were chosen by the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) (Schwarz, 1978). ML-pairwise distances were computed using the same codon-based partitioned models using Treefinder. Robustness of nodes in ML was assessed by non-parametric bootstrap percentages (BP) after 1000 pseudo-replicates and by the expected-likelihood weights applied to local rearrangements of tree topology (LR-ELW) after 1000 replicates.

In the BI analyses, distinct GTR + I + G models were used for each codon position, with unlinking of base frequencies and parameters. Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling was performed for 10,000,000 generations with four simultaneous chains, in two runs. Robustness of nodes in BI was assessed by Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP) calculated from trees that were sampled every 100 generations, after removing the first 25% generations as a 'burn-in' stage. Adequacy of BI analyses sampling was assessed through the effective sample size (ESS)

of each parameter, calculated using the software Tracer version 1.6 (Rambaut, 2012). Values above 100 effectively independent samples were considered sufficient.

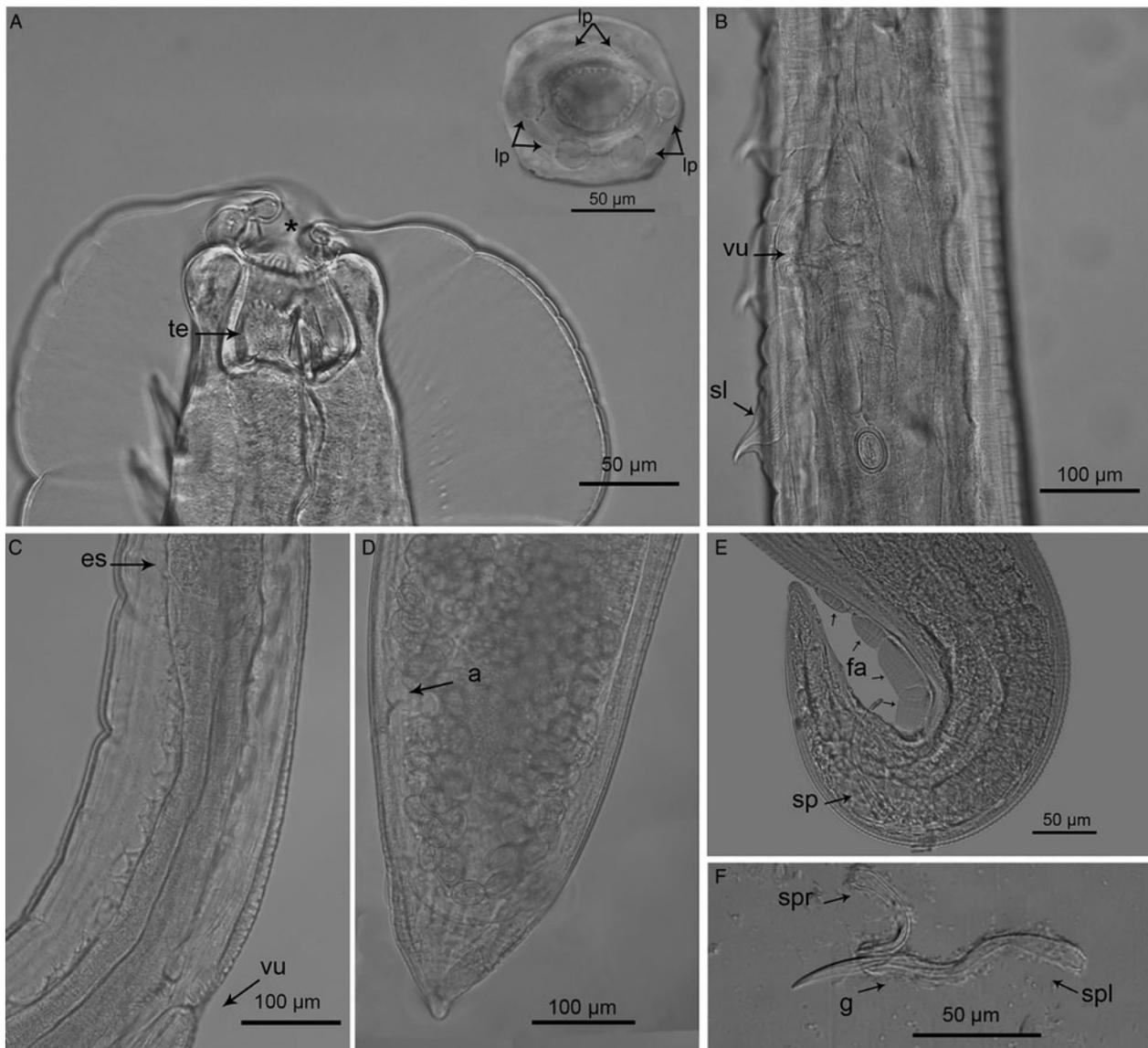
## Results

### Morphology by light and scanning electron microscopy

#### Description

Adult helminths exhibited sexual dimorphism. The female body was larger and more robust than the male, and both showed two columns of spine-like cuticular projections organized in pairs located ventrally, beginning below the buccal capsule and extending until near the end of the body. The oral cavity was triangulate, surrounded by six labial papillae (2 ventral, 2 lateroventral and 2 dorsal) and four external cephalic papillae (1 pair ventral and 1 pair dorsal) (figs 1A and 2B–D). There was a pair of amphids between the lateral and the dorsal labial papillae (fig. 2B). The buccal capsule with thick walls was sclerotized, trapezoidal in shape, with three oesophageal teeth (fig. 1A). The oral opening was surrounded by a toothed strip of 21 denticles in females (9 dorsal and 6 on each ventrolateral side) and 17 in males (7 dorsal and 5 on each ventrolateral side) (figs 1A and 2E). The female presented 81 ventrolateral spine-like cuticular projections arranged in pairs, being 38 prevulvar and 43 postvulvar (fig. 1B). The vulvar opening was posterior to the oesophageal–intestinal junction (fig. 1C). The tail was conical and fig. 1D indicates the position of the anus.

Males presented 41 spine-like ventrolateral cuticular projections (fig. 2A) with three or four fans ventral and anterior to the cloaca in juvenile and adult worms, respectively, in finfold shape (figs 1E, 2A). The posterior end of the male had nine pairs of papillae: 2 pairs precloacal, 1 pair ad-cloacal and 6 pairs postcloacal, organized in two groups. The first group was made up of two pairs of papillae and the second with three pairs of papillae near the tail tip. The ninth pair of papillae was located at the tip of the male tail, ending bluntly (figs 3B–D). A pair of phasmids was also observed between the eighth and the



**Fig. 1.** Light microscopy of *Pterygodermatites (Paucipectines) zygodontomis*. (A) Female buccal capsule with three oesophageal teeth (te) showing oral opening (asterisk). Details of apical view showing three developed lips and six labial papillae (lp); (B) vulvar (vu) region, lateral view, and spine-like posulvar cuticular projections (sl); (C) region of transition of oesophagus (es) and intestine and vulva (vu); (D) female posterior region, lateral view, anus (a); (E) male posterior region, ventral view, details of four fans (fa) and spicules (sp); (F) right spicule (spr), left spicule (spl) and gubernaculum (g), lateral view.

ninth pair of papillae (fig. 3C). The spicules were unequal in size with similar shape, at a ratio of 1:2 (right:left) (fig. 1F). The presence of a rectangular gubernaculum was observed (fig. 1F). These traits and the morphometric characteristics allowed us to identify the specimens to the species level by comparing them with other specimens belonging to *P. (P.) zygodontomis* recovered from *N. lasiurus* (table 2).

### Molecular and phylogenetic analysis

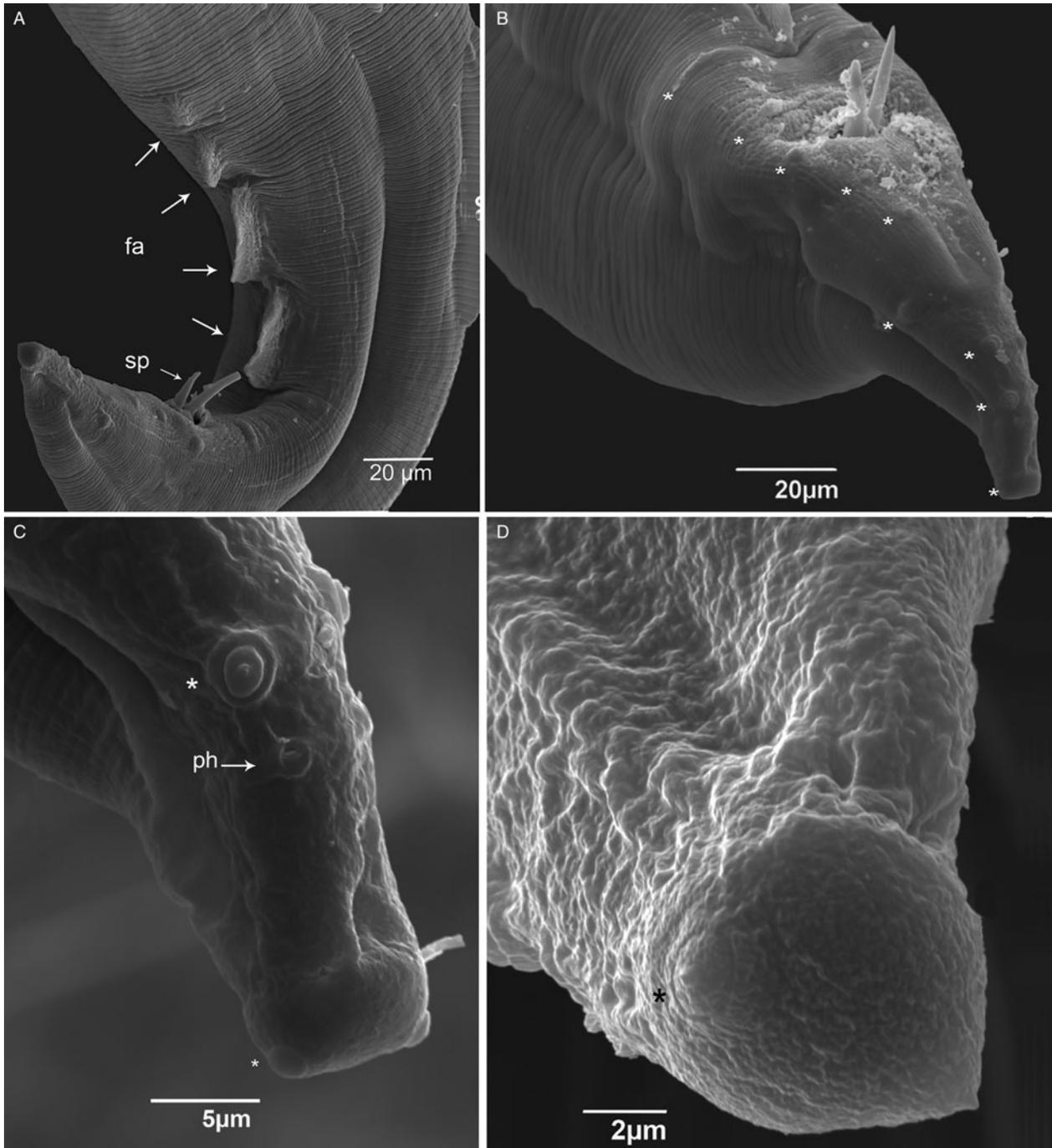
Alignment of sequences resulted in a matrix comprising 46 taxa and 876 characters, of which 309 were constant and 507 were variable characters, informative for parsimony. The test by Xia & Lemey (2009) for substitution saturation provided evidence for saturation only at the third codon positions, whereas overall there was little saturation in the matrix (data not shown).

Our phylogenies, based on the MT-CO1, inferred using two different optimality criteria (ML and BI), resulted in similar topologies with little variation in nodes and support values (fig. 4). The ML method resulted in a tree with score  $\ln L = -12339.81$ . The evolutionary models selected through BIC were: TN+G in the first codon positions, TVM+G in the second codon positions, and J2+G in the third codon positions, all models with optimized substitution rates, frequencies of bases and gamma distributions. The BI Markov chains provided highly significant estimated sample sizes (ESS) for all parameters.

MT-CO1 sequences formed two well-supported reciprocally monophyletic groups with *P. jaegerskioldi* (LR-ELW = 94%, ML-BP = 98%, BPP = 100%) and *P. zygodontomis* (LR-ELW = 89%, ML-BP = 98%, BPP = 100%). These two clades formed a strongly supported monophyletic group (LR-ELW = 100%, ML-BP = 100%, BPP = 100%), representing the superfamily Rictularioidea.



**Fig. 2.** Scanning electron microscopy of *P. (P.) zygodontomis*. (A) Male, spine-like cuticular projections; (B) female, anterior end showing a pair of well-defined longitudinal cuticular elements, ventrolaterally located (v); (C) female, anterior end, apical view and external cephalic papillae (cp); (D) apical view, amphiid (a), ventral region (v), dorsal region (d) and labial papillae (asterisk); (E) anterior end showing oral opening surrounded by a crown of teeth.



**Fig. 3.** Scanning electron microscopy of *P. (P.) zygodontomis*. (A) Male, posterior portion, ventral view, details of four fans (fa) and spicules (sp); (B) pairs of papillae (asterisk); (C) the tail, a pair of phasmids (ph) and papillae (asterisk); (D) tip of male with papillae (asterisk).

Sequences representing the superfamily Spiruroidea were not recovered as monophyletic in any topology. Within Spiruroidea, families Spiruridae, represented by *Protospirura* species, and Spiroceridae, represented by *Cylicospirura*, *Physocephalus* and *Spirocerca* species, were not monophyletic, although *Cylicospirura* and *Spirocerca* species formed a well-supported monophyletic group (LR-ELW = 99%, ML-BP = 97%, BPP = 100%).

Although relationships between superfamilies Rictularioidea, Filarioidea, Habronematoidea Physalopteroidea, Spiruroidea and Thelazioidea were generally poorly supported, their sequences

formed a strongly supported monophyletic group (LR-ELW = 100%, ML-BP = 92%, BPP = 100%) (see supplementary table S1).

ML-pairwise genetic distances of the MT-CO1 gene between *Pterygodermatites* species ranged from 3 to 4%, between *P. (P.) jaegerskioldi* and *P. (P.) zygodontomis*. The intraspecific distances between *P. (P.) zygodontomis* specimens ranged from 0.04%, between the specimens from *N. lasiurus* and *Rhipidomys mastacalis* from Uberlândia, state of Minas Gerais, to 0.05% between the specimens from *N. lasiurus* from Uberlândia, state of Minas Gerais, and from Exú, state of Pernambuco. The intraspecific distance between *P. (P.) jaegerskioldi* specimens was 0.04% (table 3).

**Table 2.** Comparison of morphometric characteristics (in  $\mu\text{m}$ ) of *Pterygodermatites* (*Paucepectines*) *zygodontomis* among specimens of *Necomys lasiurus* of Brazilian rodents.

Species	<i>P. zygodontomis</i>		<i>P. zygodontomis</i>		<i>P. zygodontomis</i>	
	Quentin (1967)		Grossmann (2015)		Present study	
Reference	Exú, Pernambuco, Brazil		Planaltina, Brasília, Brazil		Uberlândia, Minas Gerais, Brazil	
Distribution						
Sex (n)	Males	Females	Males (10)	Females (9)	Males (9)	Females (10)
Number cuticular formations (spine)	41	81/38 prevulvar	40–41	–	41	79–81/38–41 prevulvar
Total length (mm)	4.2 mm	28 mm	2.82 mm	12.96 mm	(2.85) 2.29–3.20 mm	(14) 10–19 mm
Body width	190	310	183	250	120–183	137.61–250.01
Length of buccal capsule	26	75	–	–	17.76–27	19.73–45.80
Base of buccal capsule	–	–	–	–	22.76–33	36.22–61.94
Total length of oesophagus	1200	3790	790	2550	768–994	1599–3290
Excretory pore (d <sub>fae</sub> )	250	1360	–	1000	186–259	379.82–522.41
Nerve ring (d <sub>fae</sub> )	400	350	140	180	135–184	152.39–278.46
Distance from the vulva to the oesophago-intestinal region	–	730	–	570	–	294.43–694
Vulva	–	4520	–	3110	–	1772–3950
Number of fans	3	–	–	–	3–4	–
Right spicule	55	–	54	–	45.12–61	–
Right spicule width	5	–	6	–	3.48–4.50	–
Left spicule	104	–	93	–	102.12–116	–
Left spicule width	10	–	8.1	–	9–10	–
Length of gubernaculum	42	–	–	–	30.6–43.78	–
Tail length	43	–	151	380	96.18–121	149.27–214
Total length spine anterior portion	50	–	40	–	35–55	33–57
Total length spine media portion	50	–	43	–	50–64	68–88
Total length spine posterior portion	60	–	50	–	44–58	46–75
Last spine-tail tip distance	–	770	–	–	–	226–498
Eggs (length)	–	37	–	–	–	31–50
Eggs (width)	–	28	–	–	–	16–26

d<sub>fae</sub>, Distance from anterior end.

## Discussion

The genus *Pterygodermatites* is characterized by the oral opening shape, presence of three oesophageal teeth, and number of spine-like prevulvar cuticular projections. Moreover, the subgenus *Paucepectines* includes the arrangement of the caudal papillae in males (Quentin, 1969; Anderson *et al.*, 2009). In the Americas, 17 species belonging to the subgenus *Paucepectines* have been reported parasitizing rodents of the families Cricetidae and Sciuridae, marsupials of the families Caenolestidae and Didelphidae, and bats of the family Molossidae as definitive hosts (Lent & Freitas, 1935; Quentin, 1967; Sutton, 1979; Chabaud & Bain, 1981; Sutton, 1984; Navone, 1989; Navone & Suriano, 1992; Ramallo & Claps, 2007; Torres *et al.*, 2007; Jiménez & Patterson, 2012; Miño *et al.*, 2012; Lynggaard *et al.*, 2014).

*Pterygodermatites* (*Paucepectines*) *zygodontomis* was described as *Rictularia zygodontomis* by Quentin (1967) and later

transferred to *Pterygodermatites* by Quentin (1969). Within the subgenus *Paucepectines*, this species can be distinguished from other species (*P. coloradensis*, *P. peromysci*, *P. parkeri*, *P. ondatrae*, *P. azarai*, *P. microti*, *P. onychomis* and *P. hymanae*) by the greater number of spine-like prevulvar cuticular projections (Lichtenfels, 1970; Lynggaard *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, *P. kozeki*, *P. chaetophracti*, *P. spinicaudatis*, *P. microti* and *P. dipodomis* differ from *P. zygodontomis* due to the lower number of total spine-like cuticular projections in females.

In addition, *P. zygodontomis* differs from *P. baiomydis*, *P. azarai* and *P. elegans* by the smaller distance between the vulva and the oesophageal–intestinal junction. The nematodes *P. jaegerskioldi* and *P. massoi*, both described only on females, are distinct from *P. zygodontomis* by the smaller distance from the spine-like cuticular projection to the tip of the tail (Sutton, 1979; Torres *et al.*, 2007).

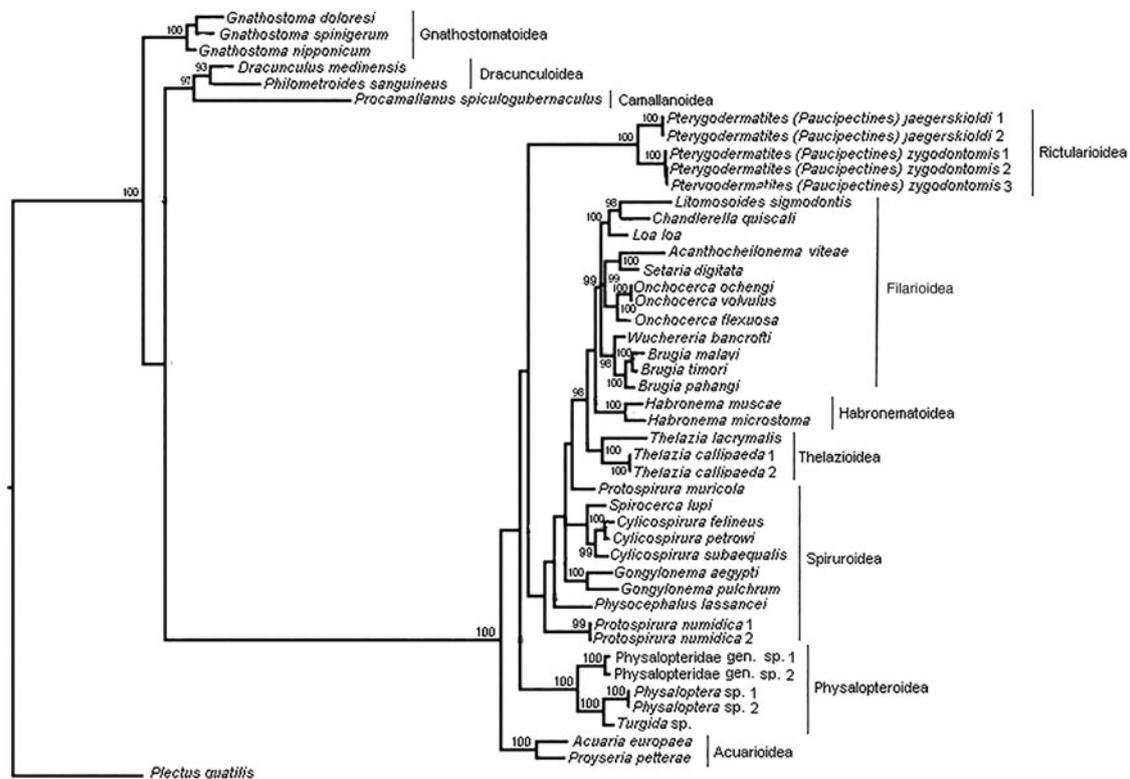


Fig. 4. Bayesian phylogenetic reconstruction, based on the MT-CO1 gene. Values at the nodes are the Bayesian posterior probabilities greater than 90%.

In the original description, *P. zygodontomis* was reported to present three unpaired fans in males in the posterior ventral region (Quentin, 1967). We observed four fans at the posterior ventral end using scanning electron microscopy. Probably, the first structure is not totally developed and cannot be visualized under light microscopy.

Although Quentin (1967) described males with ten pairs of papillae, we clearly observed a pair of phasmids between the eighth and ninth pairs of papillae at the posterior end. Thus, *P. (P.) zygodontomis* presented nine pairs of papillae and not ten as reported previously. To date, *P. (P.) zygodontomis* has been

described as a parasite of *N. lasiurus*, sharing morphological characteristics such as the number of spine-like prevulvar cuticular projections and fans, in males, and unequal spicules. However, female specimens examined in this study and by Grossmann (2015) were smaller in body length than those found by Quentin (1967). Among the characteristics used to identify the species, we noted that the distance from the last spine-like cuticular projection to the tip of the tail in females was smaller than the distance observed by Quentin (1967), and the distance from the vulva to the oesophago-intestinal region was also smaller in the present study. In addition, we found differences in the distance from the cloaca to the tip of the tail in males. These differences may be due to different development stages of the specimens analysed by Quentin and in the present study.

The original morphological description of *P. (P.) zygodontomis* by Quentin (1967) was confirmed in the present study using light microscopy and SEM. We also added new characteristics using SEM, such as details of the oral opening surrounded by a toothed strip of 21 denticles, four fans and a pair of phasmids.

Additionally, our findings increase the host spectrum and the geographic distribution of *P. (P.) zygodontomis*, through the description of this species infecting *N. lasiurus* and *R. mastacalis* in the Cerrado biome, while the original description of the species was restricted to *N. lasiurus* individuals in the Caatinga biome. Cerrado and Caatinga are neighbouring biomes forming the so-called South American Dry Diagonal, a large belt of land characterized by high seasonality and low rainfall. Their mammal faunas are largely shared (120 species, including 22 rodents) (Carmignotto *et al.*, 2012), which contributes to similarities in the helminth fauna of mammalian hosts. The presence of this parasite in both biomes may be linked to the extended distribution of *N. lasiurus*. Moreover, infection of *R. mastacalis* by *P.*

Table 3. Interspecific and intraspecific MT-CO1 pairwise ML genetic distances, minimum and maximum percentages within spirurid genera.

	Interspecific	Intraspecific
<i>Brugia</i>	0.76–1.45	*
<i>Cylicospirura</i>	0.57–1.67	*
<i>Gnathostoma</i>	2.10–2.92	*
<i>Habronema</i>	2.30	*
<i>Onchocerca</i>	0.05–1.72	*
<i>Physaloptera</i>	*	0.003
<i>Physalopteridae</i> gen.	0.51	*
<i>Protospirura</i>	4.95–4.98	0.103
<i>Pterygodermatites</i>	3.25–4.09	0.035–0.053
<i>Thelazia</i>	5.23–5.30	0.016

\*, Not applicable.

(*P.* *zygodontomis*) may be accidental, although indicating the low host-specificity of this parasite. Distribution and feeding habits in these rodents may explain their infection by *P. (P.) zygodontomis*. Rodents of both species (*N. lasiurus* and *R. mastacalis*) inhabit the Cerrado biome (Carmignotto *et al.*, 2012) and have an insectivorous–omnivorous diet (Talamoni *et al.*, 2008; Pinotti *et al.*, 2011), which may favour infection through the ingestion of insects that act as intermediate hosts. However, while *Necromys* is a genus endemic to open formations (D’Elia, 2003), *R. mastacalis* is an arboreal species, commonly found in forest physiognomies (Atlantic Forest, woodlands and gallery or semi-deciduous forests in the Cerrado biome), although also occurring in the Caatinga. Hence, conversion of natural ecosystems to open formations, following anthropogenic disturbances occurring in the Cerrado during the past few decades, may have contributed to the transmission dynamics of *P. (P.) zygodontomis* between rodent species.

In our molecular phylogenies, based on the MT-CO1 gene, no phylogenetic affinities could be unambiguously established between *Pterygodermatites* species and other Spirurid families or superfamilies. In addition, a close relationship between families Rictulariidae and Physalopteridae, as suggested by Vicente *et al.* (1997), was not supported in our phylogenetic analysis. Nevertheless, we have found strong support for a group including the superfamilies Filarioidea, Habronematoidea, Physalopteroidea, Rictularioidea, Spiruroidea and Thelazioidea. This group is consistent with the classifications proposed by Ley & Blaxter (2002), for an infraorder Spiruromorpha, or by Hodda (2011), for a suborder Spirurina, once excluding Camallanoidea; or is consistent with the classification proposed by Anderson *et al.* (2009), for a suborder Spirurina, once excluding Gnathostomatoidea. Conversely, Gnathostomatoidea, Dracunculoidea and Camallanoidea were more distantly related to other spirurids; with a Dracunculoidea–Camallanoidea clade supporting the suborder Camallanina proposed by Anderson *et al.* (2009).

Additionally, in topologies, our sequences of *P. numidica* did not form a clade with the sequence of *Protospirura muricola* from GenBank. That would not be expected if these specimens belonged to the same genus. Presumably, the sample from GenBank may have been erroneously assigned to the genus *Protospirura*, while in fact belonging to the genus *Mastophorus*. Because of the inappropriate choice of characters, *Protospirura* has had a long and difficult history of confusion with the similar *Mastophorus*, as stated by Smales *et al.* (2009). A complete morphological examination of the GenBank specimen of *P. muricola* could clear this matter. Moreover, genetic distances between *Protospirura* species were approximately 5%, which were larger than the distances between species of *Brugia*, *Cylicospirura*, *Gnathostoma*, *Habronema*, *Onchocerca* and *Pterygodermatites*, and smaller than the distances between *Thelazia* species.

In conclusion, the geographic distribution of *P. (P.) zygodontomis* was expanded with this study and new morphological characters were added. In addition, this is the first report of molecular phylogenetic analyses of the Rictulariidae family, enhancing its molecular dataset and contributing to future research that may compare ancestry among the *Pterygodermatites* subgenera, as proposed by Quentin (1969). Further studies are needed for a better understanding of the relationships between the spirurid superfamilies, including representatives of the Aproctoidea and Diplostriaenoidea superfamilies.

**Supplementary material.** To view supplementary material for this article, please visit <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022149X17000736>

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